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Vol. XX MARCH, 1937 No. 3

CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A. K. KING

1. PURPOSE OF THE INVESTIGATION

A COMMITTEE which was appointed last fall to study the present plan of the University of North Carolina for training teachers found that it would be of value to have some information about procedures followed in other institutions throughout the nation. Consequently, we decided to make an exploratory investigation to find out, if possible, the trends in dealing with such practical problems as the following: a) the control and direction of the programs of college students who are preparing for high school teaching; b) the preparation of prospective high school teachers in subject-matter fields; c) their training in the field of education; d) the provision of opportunities for observation and practice teaching; e) the organization and administration of a secondary school affiliated with a teacher training institution for experimentation, demonstration, and practice teaching; and f) the status of instructors who teach special methods courses.

2. METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

After examining the catalogues of over two hundred universities, colleges, and teachers' colleges in the United States 104 were selected for this investigation. Each institution selected had a teacher training program, and the group as a whole constituted a representative sampling of all types of institutions in every part of the nation. A questionnaire requesting information about specific practices involved in dealing with the six major problems enumerated above was sent to the person in each institution who was in charge of training

secondary school teachers. In addition, they were invited to write a letter or send bulletins describing any special features that could not be made clear by replying to the items in the questionnaire. To the 104 questionnaires sent out, 91 responses were received, and about half of these were supplemented with further information.

In tabulating the replies it was decided to classify the institutions into three groups. Group A includes all publicly supported colleges and universities except teachers colleges. The latter are in group B. All private colleges and universities are in group C. There are 51 institutions in group A, 13 in B, and 27 in C. The tabulations were made directly from the replies to the questionnaire when the information was clearly and explicitly recorded. However, in many cases it was necessary to study the letters and bulletins accompanying the replies, and in some cases the most recent catalogues of institutions were consulted to assist in tabulating statements.

This study is limited to the practices in training teachers that can be classified and enumerated. It makes no attempt to determine objectively whether these practices are either sound or unsound, good or bad. Some comments of individuals are noted; however, these are merely opinions. Any objective study of the quality of the practices reported here would have to employ a much more refined technique than we used.

3. Administrative Control of Students Preparing to Teach

There are at least five different types of administrative control employed by various institutions throughout the nation. First, 42 of the 86 institutions which reported on this question give complete control to a department, school, or College of Education. Twenty-seven out of 48 group A institutions and 8 out of 13 group B, or about 7 out of every 12 publicly supported institutions, vest complete control of teacher training in an agency set up specifically for that purpose. In group C, or private schools, only 7 out of 25 follow this procedure. Second, 22 institutions give complete control to a College of Arts or Sciences. This is strongest among group C institutions where there are 13 out of 25, with no group B and only 9 out of 48 group A institutions. Third, control by a division of related departments is found in only 3 group B and 1 group C institutions. In its administrative aspects, this plan apparently has not been adopted very widely. Fourth, control by a subject-matter department is found in only 4 instances. A final method, which provides for joint control between the department of education and one of the other three, is found in 12 group A and 2 group C institutions.

It should be noted that many institutions reported that the School or College of Education had control of all students registered in it, but students from the College of Arts and other schools and departments were permitted to elect courses in Education. These institutions were classified under the first method listed above. One person thought this plan was very satisfactory while three others objected to it strongly because it tended to cause competition in curricula.

4. Preparation of Students in Subject-Matter Fields

The practice of requiring or strongly advising college students who are preparing to teach to make specific preparation in one or more subject-matter fields is very widespread. All except 5 of the 82 institutions reporting on this item require one or more, 68 advise at least two. A sampling of the catalogues of the larger institutions both public and private revealed that many list specific programs to be followed for preparation in a wide range of subjects and fields taught on the secondary level.

5. Professional Requirements in Teacher Training Programs

On the questionnaire those who co-operated in this study were requested to give the number of semester hours that are required for a major in Education in each of seven types of courses in Education. They were also requested to give the number required in electives, and the number required in any additional courses not listed. Many replied that their institutions offered no undergraduate major in Education, but some of these gave the courses usually required in the teacher training program. Additional information was obtained from the catalogues of some institutions. Data have been obtained for 80 institutions, and some of the results are presented in Tables I and II. There seems to be a tendency among group A and B institutions to follow state certification regulations. Group C institutions require a smaller amount and permit students to accommodate their programs to the requirements of the states in which they intend to teach.

Table I shows the range and frequency of the total number of semester hours required by the 80 institutions for which information was obtainable. The requirements range from 10-12 to 27-30 semester hours with a median of approximately 20. Almost three-fifths of the institutions fall within the range of 16-21 semester hours.

Table II shows the distribution and range of required semester hours in the seven types of courses in Education which were listed on the questionnaire. Data were obtainable for only 77 institutions.

TABLE I—Total number of semester hours in Education required as reported by 80 institutions.

Group	SEMESTER HOURS REQUIRED							
	10–12	13–15	16–18	19–21	22–24	25–27	27–30	Total
A	1	1	16	18	5	6	2	49
B	1	1	1	5	3	–	1	12
C	2	3	6	2	2	2	2	19
Total	4	5	23	25	10	8	5	80

Educational Psychology and Practice Teaching seem to be the most universal requirements, with only 2 institutions failing to list the former and only 3 the latter. About four-fifths of the institutions reporting listed Principles or Philosophy of Secondary Education, General Methods, and Materials and Methods in a specific subject or field as required courses. Only 35 listed Introduction to Education and 29 History of Education.

Some elective courses in education are required by 13 institutions, perhaps indicating that the program is rather rigidly prescribed in the remainder. General Psychology and Tests and Measurements are the most popular additions, with 14 institutions listing each. Eight institutions require School Organization and Administration, 4 Educational Sociology, and 4 a separate course in Observation. Statistics, The Curriculum, Biology, Psychology of Adolescence, and Guidance were all listed once. It is evident that there is considerable disagreement as to what the professional content of the teacher training program should be.

A closer examination of Table II reveals that there is even greater disagreement concerning the amount of time that should be devoted to the required courses. These requirements vary as much as from 1 to 10 semester hours. However, 3 semester hours or less are required 53 times out of 75 in Educational Psychology, 49 times out of 60 in Principles or Philosophy of Education, 55 times out of 62 in General Methods, 50 times out of 59 in Materials and Methods, 23 times out of 29 in History of Education, and 32 times out of 35 in Introduction to Education. In Practice Teaching only is there a tendency to require more than 3 semester hours. In this course 48 out of 74 institutions require 4 or more semester hours. Materials and Methods courses are the only ones in which there is a significant tendency to require less than 3 semester hours. Out of 59 institutions 26 require 2 semester hours or less in these courses. Among the 13 institutions which permitted undergraduates to elect some of

TABLE II—Semester hours of seven types of courses in Education listed on the questionnaire which were reported as required by 49 publicly supported colleges and universities, 11 teachers colleges, and 17 private institutions.

Description of the course	Group	Semester Hours Required										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
Educational Psychology	A		7	32	3	1	4					47
	B		1	8			2					11
	C			15	1		1					17
	Total..		8	45	4	1	7					75
Principles or Philosophy of Education	A		8	20	1	1	4					34
	B	1		9	1							11
	C		1	10			2			1	1	15
	Total..	1	9	39	2	1	6			1	1	60
General Methods of Secondary Education	A	1	12	24	1	1	1					40
	B	1	2	6								9
	C		1	8	1		3					13
	Total..	2	15	38	2	1	4					62
Materials and Methods of Teaching a specific subject or field	A	2	18	12	3		2					37
	B	1	2	4								7
	C	1	2	8	1		3					15
	Total..	4	22	24	4		5					59
Practice Teaching	A		4	13	9	10	9		2			47
	B			2	4	4					1	11
	C		1	6	4	4	1					16
	Total..		5	21	17	18	10		2		1	74
History of Education	A		2	13	2		2					19
	B		1	2								3
	C		1	4			2					7
	Total..		4	19	2		4					29
Introduction to Education	A	1	4	16			1					22
	B			5								5
	C		1	5			2					8
	Total..	1	5	26			3					35

the education courses in their programs, 8 allowed 5 or more semester hours.

There seems to be one significant difference among the three groups of institutions. As was noted above, the total number of semester hours required by group C institutions is lower than those required by the other two groups. The median for group C is 17.7 semester hours, and for groups A and B together 20.1 semester hours, a difference of 2.4 semester hours.

Certain five year programs and other variations from the usual give evidence of some dissatisfaction with the present situation. The University of Pennsylvania has a five year program which prescribes 49 semester hours in professional courses including 6 hours in General Psychology and 10 hours in Practice Teaching. At the other extreme the University of Chicago offers a five-year program requiring only 4 courses in Education, totaling 13 semester hours. All of these except Practice Teaching may be earned by comprehensive examinations, but students are advised to take the Materials and Methods Courses. At Chicago the emphasis is clearly on good preparation in subject-matter. Northwestern is developing an experimental program projecting into the fifth year and involving a period of "interneship" which requires the student to spend one-half of the time in a public school. The professional courses are built around a four block program of Educational Psychology, a study of the Public School, General Methods, and Special Methods, all in addition to Practice Teaching.

Several institutions stressed the idea of an integrated block of courses similar to the one being tried out at Northwestern. Among these were West Virginia University where they have a senior block of 8 semester hours, and William and Mary where they have an integrated course of 12 semester hours in addition to 9 hours of Special Methods and Practice Teaching.

Other institutions stressed the need for a more careful selection of students who are admitted to teacher training programs. Syracuse University accepts students for teacher training only after an elaborate analysis of each student's qualifications by a committee which examines all available data concerning his personality, intelligence, health, and general culture. From 1933 through 1935, 909 students applied for admission to the School of Education near the end of their sophomore year, but only 712 were accepted.[1]

At the College of the City of New York the method of selection is explained by the following quotation from Professor E. R. Mosher's letter accompanying the questionnaire:

"Each semester we admit a strictly limited number of young men to the professional courses (methods and pupil-teaching) in secondary education, all carefully selected upon a basis of scholarship, character, and social acceptability. Every candidate admitted must be especially recommended by the head of the department (in the Liberal Arts College) in which he has specialized, must pass examinations in written and oral English, and must be vouched for by sev-

[1] Ganders, H. S. "The Selection of Prospective Teachers in the Sophomore year of the University," (Reprint) *Official Report*, American Educational Research Association, 1936.

eral members of the faculty who know him well enough to give reliable information regarding his personality. We ordinarily accept about one-half or two-thirds of the students who are recommended to us."

These two examples are representative of sentiment in favor of more careful selection of prospective teachers. Qualifications are mentioned in some of the catalogues, but they usually relate to "quality points" for graduation rather than to aptitude for admission to a teacher training program.

6. Opportunities for Observation and Practice Teaching

It was pointed out above that there is a tendency to make the requirements in Practice Teaching higher, when measured in semester hours, than for any other professional subject in the student's program. Another measure of the amount of practical experience actually received by the student is in terms of clock hours. One section of the questionnaire asked for the number of clock hours of observation and of actual teaching required of students. Many replies stated that the two were given together with no fixed ratio.

An analysis of these replies also revealed wide differences. One institution requires only 15 hours of actual teaching, while another requires 360 hours of observation and teaching combined. Group B institutions tend to rank higher in providing opportunities for practical experience, with group A next, and with group C last. Their medians for teaching only are 83.5, 41.5, and 30.3 hours respectively. It should be noted that there are only 8 group B institutions included.

The median amount of observation required by 49 institutions is 32.5 hours. The median amount of actual teaching required by 58 institutions is 42.6 hours. In 24 institutions where the two are combined the median is 86 hours. These figures lead to the conclusion that little observation is done in courses other than practice teaching. The median semester hours requirement in practice teaching is approximately 4.6. The latter translated into comparable figures is the equivalent of 82.8 clock hours.

Information was also requested concerning the type of school facilities utilized for practice teaching. Of the 85 reports on this item 45 institutions indicated that regular public schools are utilized for practice teaching, and 40 that they are not. Presumably, the latter use an affiliated secondary school which they control, either in full or in part. However, a few institutions which operate training or laboratory schools place some of their students in public schools for practice teaching. It is interesting to note that five institutions permit all or

a part of their students to spend a period, varying from 6 to 20 weeks, out of regular college residence for practice teaching in some public school system. Only 16 of the 91 institutions report that they charge practice teachers a special fee. Hence, the funds for paying public schools for this service or for supporting affiliated schools come from other sources in most cases.

7. The Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools Affiliated with Teacher Training Institutions

In framing the questionnaire one of the objectives was to find out how secondary schools affiliated with teacher training institutions and used for experimentation, observation, demonstration and practice teaching are organized, controlled and administered. The term "affiliated secondary school" was meant to include any type of secondary school operated and controlled, either in part or in full, by a teacher training institution. It was not intended to include a regular public school which is used for practice teaching and has no official administrative connection with an institution. Incidentally, considerable information was received about the latter type, and it is presented with the data concerning the special type of school with which this section deals. The data received cover the following specific items: a) the number of institutions that have affiliated secondary schools; b) the grades included in these schools; c) how the school plants were provided; d) how the plants are maintained; e) how the administration of the school is controlled; f) how teachers are paid; and g) whether pupils are charged tuition.

It appears that at least 43 of the 91 institutions have some kind of affiliated secondary schools. The remaining 48 institutions have no schools closely enough connected with their teacher training program to be called "affiliated." Almost one-half of the group A institutions have such schools. Of the 25 in this group only 1 was listed as primarily a laboratory school for experimentation. Four are primarily for practice teaching, and 20 for both purposes. All of the 13 group C institutions have affiliated schools, 9 primarily for practice teaching and 4 for both practice teaching and experimentation. Only 5 of the 27 group C institutions have affiliated schools. Of these, 1 is primarily for experimentation; 3 are primarily for practice teaching; and 1 is for both purposes.

The grades included in the affiliated schools were reported by 39 institutions. There are 14 different ways of organizing these schools according to grades. This situation probably reflects the diverse sys-

tems of the country as a whole. It is significant that 12 include grades 7-12 and 7 others include the kindergarten through grade 12.

Forty-nine institutions report that they use secondary school plants provided by public schools, and 32 provide their own. In 9 instances the public school system and the teacher training institution have joined forces in providing the plant. The 41 cases in which the plant is provided entirely or in part by the institution probably includes most of the affiliated schools.

Data were received showing how the school plants used for practice teaching by 81 institutions are maintained. These data are not quite as complete as those in the preceding paragraph, but a comparison of the reports indicates that institutions which provide the plant entirely also maintain it. Apparently 12 participate jointly in the maintenance of the plant as compared with 9 which participate jointly in providing it.

Complete administrative control is exercised over the schools used for practice teaching in 36 cases, and in an additional 14 there is joint control of the administration, if the replies on this item were correct.[1] This indicates that a few institutions have some part in the administration of schools the plant for which they neither help to provide nor aid in maintaining.

From the foregoing evidence it seems reasonable to conclude that about one-third of the institutions for teacher-training operate secondary schools independently of the public school system. Perhaps one-seventh of the teacher training institutions have joint arrangements with public schools. The remainder, constituting slightly over one-half of the teacher training institutions, probably carry on practice teaching in public schools over which they exercise no control. Classified by groups, it seems that about two-fifths of group A institutions have schools completely under their control and about one-fifth have joint arrangements of some kind. Perhaps three-fourths of the group B institutions have independent schools and the remainder have joint arrangements. Not over one-ninth of the group C institutions have independent schools, and perhaps one-sixth have joint agreements.

The methods by which the teachers in schools used for practice teaching by 77 institutions are paid lends strong support to the conclusions above. In 32 cases the teachers are paid entirely by the institution. The latter constitute slightly over one-third of all the 91 institutions in this study. In 10 cases there are some teachers paid entirely by the institution and others paid in part. These are institu-

[1] It is probable that this part of the questionnaire was misinterpreted in a few cases.

tions which have a joint agreement with the public school system. In 30 cases the public school salary is supplemented for those who supervise practice teachers. There are a few joint agreement schools among the latter, but most of the 30 are cases where the institution pays a public school teacher a fee for supervising practice teachers in her classes. These fees range from $150 per student to "a modest stipend." An interesting sidelight is the *quid pro quo* practice followed by 5 institutions of compensating teachers with free tuition for advanced study.

The status of the administrative head throws a little further light on the control of the affiliated school. The person who is the head of the school is also the Director of Practice Teaching in 24 institutions. There are between 40 and 45 institutions out of the 91 included in this study which have affiliated schools. Hence, it appears that the two functions are combined in slightly less than 60 per cent of the institutions.

Tuition fees are charged by the affiliated schools of 27 institutions. In all cases except one these schools are apparently entirely independent of the public school system.

All of the comments about the secondary schools in which practice teaching is carried on related either to non-affiliated public schools or to schools which are operated under a joint agreement. Few of the letters indicated that institutions without affiliated schools have any desire to add this feature to their teacher training program. Seven expressed satisfaction with the cordial relations which they maintain with the public schools. Several stated that this situation is more normal than it would be in a school under their control, and offers the student teacher a better opportunity for becoming familiar with the actual problems with which he will be confronted later.

The plans for conducting practice teaching followed in some of the institutions which utilize regular public schools were described. The mechanics of these plans vary from relatively simple informal inspection by the Director to highly complex formal reports rendered by the student teacher on every phase of his activities. However, they all seem to follow the same administrative pattern. The teacher training institution has a "Director of Practice Teaching."[1] The student is responsible to him for theoretical training, for some practical advice concerning lesson plans, and for frequent reports on his progress. The Director also makes a few visits to the class in which the student is teaching and criticizes his actual performance. In large

[1] It is designated frequently "Student Teaching," "Cadet Teaching," or "Apprentice Teaching."

institutions the Director may have a corps of special subject supervisors to whom the above details are assigned, permitting him to "coordinate" the entire program. Ordinarily the Director is the coadjutor between the institution and the public school. He makes contacts with the principals and teachers, selects the classes for practice teaching, and the students to be placed in the classes. The student is responsible to the classroom teacher for assisting with all the details of conducting the class, for teaching a part of the time, and for frequent conferences. Sometimes the student teacher pays the institution a fee for this privilege which is passed on to the classroom teacher. More frequently he does not pay a fee, but the teacher is given a small stipend for her supervisory services by the institution. In a few instances the public schools may be willing to accept student teachers in exchange for their instructional services without any compensation to the classroom teachers. The entire scheme depends upon the ability of the teacher training institution to maintain cordial relations with the public school authorities.

Letters expressing satisfaction with the joint arrangement were not as emphatic as those in the situations discussed above. One stated, "It is not satisfactory, but from all I have been able to learn, I assume our relationships are about as ideal as any relationships involving dual control can be." On the other hand, a representative of a large Pacific coast institution which trains 450 students annually stated that dual control "has worked very well."

There seems to be no general pattern followed by the institutions which have joint agreements with the public schools. Each case probably has been shaped largely by local conditions. In some instances the building is provided and maintained jointly. Usually there is joint administrative control, but in at least one case the institution has complete control. In every case the two parties co-operate in paying for the teaching personnel. Apparently the head of the school is in most cases a member of the faculty of the teacher training institution, and in slightly over one-half of the cases he is also the Director of Practice Teaching. The letters indicate that there is usually a definite agreement defining the conditions of the co-operative arrangement. A copy of one formal contract was received. In this instance the institution furnishes the plant, employs the teachers, subject to the approval of the Public School Board, and provides one-half of the funds. The contract is for one year with automatic extension if neither side requests a revision. In another case the building was provided by a school district and the General Education Board but is located on a university campus. The State school fund pays this

university one-half of the annual state-wide per pupil cost for each pupil. The university bears the remainder of the expense. The County School Board is consulted for advice, but the school is almost entirely under the University. In another case a large city high school is supplemented to the amount of $65,000 and run largely by a university. These examples might be multiplied, but others would only illustrate further that each is an outgrowth of peculiar local conditions.

8. Status of Instructors of Special Methods Courses

An analysis of the status of instructors who offer methods courses in the various subject matter fields presents another interesting picture of diverse practices. There are at least four different practices with respect to the departmental status of these instructors among the 88 institutions reporting on this phase of the study. First, in 28 cases they are members of the Department of Education. Second, in 18 cases they are members of some subject matter department. Third, in 32 cases they are members of both the Department of Education and a subject matter department. Finally, in 10 cases there are some instructors who are members of the Department of Education and some who are members of subject matter departments. Hence, there is no uniform practice, but the tendency seems to be in the direction of dual membership.

It was reported by 22 institutions that the instructors of special methods courses also taught in the affiliated secondary school. This is about one-half of the institutions operating such schools. The number of classes taught daily by these instructors varies from 1 to 5. Probably over one-half of them teach three or more classes daily in the school in addition to the special methods course offered in the teacher training program. They also have some supervisory duties in connection with practice teaching.

A few quotations from letters will illustrate the status and functions of this group of instructors more clearly than the statistics. "Some are heads of departments or teachers in high schools, others staff members (in the Department of Education) or in the College of Arts." "High school teachers give special methods outside of school hours." "High school teachers give methods and teach four classes daily." "Teachers of special methods supervise five high school classes daily." "No college instructors teach in the high school." "We combine materials and methods with practice teaching which is given in the public school." "Some special methods courses are taught by regular high school teachers." It appears both from the above statements and from the statistics that neither the status nor the duties of

instructors of special methods courses conforms to any pattern which even approaches uniformity.

9. Summary of Findings

a. It appears that almost one-half of the institutions in this study give complete administrative control of undergraduate students who are preparing to teach on the secondary school level to a professional agency such as a department, school or College of Education. An additional one-sixth give it joint control with some other agency. About one-fourth of the institutions vest complete control in a College of Arts or Sciences. Publicly supported institutions tend to give control to a professional agency, and privately supported institutions to a College of Arts or Sciences.

b. About two-thirds of the institutions require or strongly advise students to prepare for teaching in two subject-matter fields which are offered on the secondary level.

c. Almost three-fifths of the institutions require between 16 and 21 semester hours of work in Education courses. The median requirement is approximately 20 semester hours. Publicly supported institutions tend to require more than the median and privately supported institutions less.

d. Educational Psychology and Practice Teaching are required by all but two and three of the institutions respectively. Approximately four-fifths of those reporting require General Methods, Principles or Philosophy of Secondary Education, and Materials and Methods in a specific subject or field. Slightly over two-fifths require Introduction to Education, and almost two-fifths require History of Education. Many other courses in Education are required, but none of these by as many as one-fifth of the institutions.

e. There is a variation of from 1 to 10 semester hours in the amount of time devoted to the above courses by different institutions. However, the tendency is toward courses of 3 semester hours or less for all except Practice Teaching. The median requirement for the latter is 4.6 semester hours.

f. A small minority of the institutions seems to be moving toward a five year teacher training program. Others are experimenting with integrated courses. There also seems to be considerable sentiment in favor of the more careful selection of candidates for the teaching profession.

g. There is an extremely wide variation among the institutions in the opportunities provided for practice teaching. The median amount

(Continued on Page 118)

PRONUNCIATION QUIZ FOR FRENCH

LAWRENCE W. ROSS
Chapel Hill High School

ALTHOUGH a good pronunciation is not the most important objective in the teaching of French, an effort should be made to approximate that of the native. After introducing the study of sounds in French with the aid of the phonetic symbols we searched for a method of improving the pronunciation of the individual pupils. It seemed essential for each pupil to get more individual practice in the reading of French aloud than could be obtained in the classroom. To encourage this practice we devised a method for giving a monthly quiz in pronunciation alone.

Let the teacher reproduce the class roll on a large sheet of ruled paper, listing the names in a row to the left of the page. To the right of the names draw five parallel vertical lines at intervals of about half an inch. At the top margin of the page, above the space thus formed, list the qualities which make up a good pronunciation of French; e. g., head the first space "Speed," the second, "Smoothness," and the others, "Knowledge of Sounds," "Clearness," and "Good Linking and Phrasing." The order of the arrangement may be changed to suit the individual teacher.

For the "quiz" select some reasonably easy reading matter from the class reader, preferably material already read in class, and allow each pupil to read a paragraph aloud in turn. As the pupil reads, place a check mark in the space beside his name for each of those qualities in which he shows satisfactory proficiency. This systematic search for specific qualities in the pupils' pronunciation arouses a definite competitive interest in the classroom, especially when the date of the quiz is set well in advance, and ample time has been given for individual practice at home. Furthermore, it affords a fairer basis upon which teachers may rate the pupils. To rate or grade the pupil, consider the number of checks beside his name; if the pupil has had all five qualities checked his rating will be "excellent"; four, "good"; three, "fair"; and two or less, "poor." Teachers may vary this procedure according to their evaluation of some qualities as being more important than others.

Name	*Speed*	*Smoothness*	*Clearness*	*Knowledge of Sounds*	*Linking and Phrasing*
Smith, John	√	√		√	

As a specific example, John Smith, a typical pupil, reads fairly smoothly, and with sufficient speed. He also has a good knowledge of the correct pronunciation of the isolated sounds, but he does not pronounce clearly nor with the proper linking and phrase grouping. The teacher accordingly checks beside his name the space headed "Smoothness," "Speed," and "Knowledge of Sounds," thus leaving two spaces unchecked. This rates John as "Fair" in pronouncing ability according to our system.

We have found this scheme (although some teachers may prefer modifications) to be especially effective and valuable in arousing interest among the poorer pupils. Through this scheme they feel that they have a chance to improve their rating, since this quiz is different from other class activities, and does not necessarily require a good knowledge of grammar. Here one finds ample opportunity for praising pupils whose work may normally be failing in other phases of their language work, for improvement may be rapid, due to interest and pride in acomplishment.

HOBBIES AND THE LEISURE TIME PROBLEM

FRANCES N. AHL
Glendale High School, Glendale, California

NEVER before in the history of the world has there been so much leisure for so many people. Our schools are recognizing this fact. One of the cardinal objectives of education is training the boys and girls for the worthy use of leisure.

But does the average teacher know the extent of leisure today as compared with that of former times? Does she grasp the significance of leisure in relation to life? Does she realize that the use of marginal time by the individual and the nation actually involves human destiny? Does she encourage worthwhile hobbies as the best solution of the leisure time problem?

Hobbies are a means of using surplus energy and time in a manner that at least will not be harmful to society and will be useful to the individual. One of the best ways to reduce juvenile delinquency is to stimulate hobbies. A boy or a girl with an outside interest or hobby is less likely to get into trouble than a boy or a girl without one.

Hobbies are frequently great health-builders both physically and mentally. Not only is a game of golf or tennis a means of keeping

fit physically, but also a means of taking one's mind from oneself, from one's worries and troubles. Theodore Roosevelt turned to the collecting hobby as a means of rest from care.

Many of our greatest men and women have translated the hobbies of youth into real service in later life. Cordell Hull as a young boy was fascinated by tariff schedules and spent countless hours studying tariff rates. As Secretary of State one of his greatest successes has been with reciprocity trade agreements.

Realizing the need for encouraging hobbies, Glendale High School decided to devote two advisory periods to the problem. The first period was given over to the writing of compositions; the second to a discussion of the papers.

I was amazed at the eager interest with which my senior class wrote of their hobbies; the scope of understanding that many had developed; and the vast range of subject matter represented in their presentations.

Alexander wrote: "My hobby for the past two years has been collecting old or unique golf clubs. Collecting golf clubs takes patience as old golf clubs are hard to find."

He went on to tell of a particular club he has that is a hundred years old. "It was made in Scotland. It is a Mashie, but no tilt is on the blade, because the clubs in those days were balanced by weight, not angles."

Then he described in detail his set of eight modern Scotch clubs. The class became so interested in the comments that they wished to see the collection of golf clubs. As a result we arranged a hobby exhibit for our next advisory period, and later turned the entire exhibit over to the library that the whole student body might benefit therefrom.

Tom's hobby is caroms and ping pong. He became interested in these games during the summer recreation program three years ago. Since then he has won every city tournament in caroms.

Kenneth finds his chief outside interest in art modeling. Last summer he opened up his own studio.

Dick says, "My favorite pastime on rainy days is sitting in front of my two-tube radio set and logging the different stations." He has volunteered to equip our room with radio so that we can listen to the next presidential inauguration.

"My hobby is not a hobby," wrote Eugene, "it is a passion, I have liked guns as long as I can remember. . . . I have stood for hours in a small, smelly gun shop, watching an old man work on a rifle barrel; and two weeks later got a great thrill when that same

rifle barrel won a shooting match. When you are interested in guns your main ambition is to get a high powered rifle with a perfect barrel. To me the thrill of shooting never seems to grow old."

Four boys listed automobiles as their hobby. Bill thinks that "it is lots of fun, but expensive, to fix up a car so as to get the best performance possible from what you have to work with."

"There are two ways that boys go about working over their cars," he continues, "Some spend most of their time on the body and improve the outside appearances. Others go in for motor work. They put on various parts to make the car go faster and have more power."

Two boys and one girl spend their leisure hours at music, and two girls are studying dancing. Janice finds "it is very restful to spend an hour or two playing favorite piano compositions." Norman practices on the violin for two hours every morning before school.

Several girls find many advantages in knitting. "It is something you can pick up in your spare moments and work on. It is interesting and restful. And when you have finished you feel as though you have accomplished something worth while. . . . For any girl, old or young, knitting is a fine hobby."

Alice enjoys piecing quilts, Jean spends all of her spare time in rearranging furniture, and Agnes is fascinated by the study of human personalities.

Carol's most interesting hobby is that of making scrapbooks. She finds an endless assortment of materials for such a hobby, and the pleasure and enjoyment she receives from it are manifold.

Hobbies among the athletic sports are claimed by five members of the class. Three students write of one of the most widely followed hobbies—the collecting of objects. Jack scans the newspapers and magazines for pictures of his favorite football heroes. Kenneth seeks rare coins; and Marjorie delights in all types of souvenirs.

Thus the range of interest represented by the hobbies of this one class is without limit. And never was a keener sense of enjoyment manifested during an advisory period than when we discussed these hobbies.

Stimulation of worth while hobbies is the best solution to the leisure time problem.

The Mathematics Column

Conducted by H. F. MUNCH

MOST TEACHERS, not only of mathematics but of all subjects, find the problem of meeting the needs of individual pupils very difficult if not impossible to solve. So far as I know no one has proposed a perfect solution, that is, one that will enable teachers of groups varying from ten to forty pupils to minister perfectly to each child. Although the fact that no such solution has been offered may to some degree console those teachers who recognize keenly their own shortcomings in this respect, yet it should not bring complacency that stops short of exhausting every means at hand to give individual aid.

Some of the causes for this variation in needs may be cited as follows:

1. Heredity. Pupils are not all born with the same amount or degree of intelligence, nor the same measure of other inherited traits and tendencies.
2. Pupils who enter high school classes have had such a variety of extra-school environment and experiences that their interests, tastes, and whole background vary widely.
3. Pupils differ as to aspirations. One, for example, wishes to become a doctor, another, an automobile mechanic, another, a housewife, another, a farmer, another, a merchant, and so on. Some may have no apparent aspirations at all.
4. Some pupils have mastered the work of the curriculum thus far, while others have been merely passed on without mastering even the minimum essentials of the courses they have taken.
5. Some are industrious and energetic, while others are just plain lazy.

These are not all the causes, but they will serve our purpose here.

The first, heredity, is beyond the control of the school. The second, extra-school environment, while not altogether beyond its influence, is so in large measure. Such home-improving influences as the school can bring to bear through home visitation by teachers and school nurses, through parent-teacher gatherings, and through work with the pupils themselves, should of course be exerted whenever possible. The third, aspirations, may be greatly modified by the

teacher or the school. Many a boy or girl has received the stimulus to desire to be somebody, or to make something of himself or herself, from some good teacher. This is a field which often lies fallow. Many teachers do not realize what a powerful influence they may exert on the pupil by close individual contact, through personal help after school, through finding out where he lives, how he spends his leisure time, who his companions are, what his hobby is, and other similarly vital facts.

The fourth, lack of mastery of at least the prerequisites for more advanced courses, is largely the responsibility of the school. Here lies a great opportunity to correct at least some of the evils of present day educational practices. In my humble opinion too many public school pupils are passed who have not mastered the fundamentals of the work gone over. There are educators who go so far as to advocate that any pupil should be passed in any course or any grade that he attends. Probably, as a Utopian dream, everyone would admit that there should be no failures; but as long as group instruction is the rule and human nature, heredity, and environment are as they are, just so long should the plan of refusing credit unless earned continue.

Most teachers will admit the evil effects of failures in public school work, and will do everything to keep them at a minimum. In spite of this there are some who believe that to pass or promote pupils when they have not done a passing grade of work, and to send them on to more advanced courses or grades, is more detrimental to them than to admit that they fail and have them repeat the work. A pupil who is passed on to a more advanced course when he has not mastered at least the minimum essentials of the more elementary courses is thereby condemned to failure before he begins. This is particularly true in mathematics and foreign languages, in which there is a logical sequence of material, and in which mastery of today's assignment depends directly upon mastery of what precedes it. It is also true in science, English, and history, in less degree.

An illustration may be apropos: At the beginning of last quarter I was given a freshman mathematics class at the University of North Carolina. I had not taught the group long before I discovered one boy who was not doing the work. I called him in for consultation and help. After we got somewhat acquainted, and it became evident that he knew little high school algebra, I asked him how it came about that his knowledge was so deficient. With evident sincerity and truthfulness he told me that in his high school he was one of the best football players, that the football coach was his mathe-

matics teacher, that he well understood that even though he did nothing in mathematics he would be passed in order that he might be eligible to play football, that hence he seldom looked at his mathematics lesson. Now he was reaping his reward. He came to my office a few times for individual help which was gladly given, but he was in so hopeless a condition that he soon gave up the struggle and dropped the course. The error of sending this boy to the university with a credit which he should never have been given resulted merely in useless expense to his parents. This is only one illustration of the evils of passing pupils when they do not deserve to pass. It is no attempt to take a dig at football coaches or at this boy's particular high school.

Nor is the fault alone that of the school and the teacher. Many parents want their children passed even when they are well aware that they have not done the work, and some even demand it. There is sufficient evidence to prove that teachers and superintendents or principals have lost their jobs because certain pupils did not receive a passing grade. Here is an opportunity for the school to do an efficient bit of parent education.

But what may be done to remedy this evil? Let me describe an experiment recently inaugurated in the Chapel Hill High School. Here it had long been evident that, due to causes which we need not discuss, a considerable number of first year pupils were deficient in a knowledge of arithmetic. Last June it was agreed, with the sanction of the local School Board, that in September a good standard arithmetic achievement test should be given all eighth grade pupils at time of entrance, and that those pupils who fell below seventh grade level should be put into a separate section of high school mathematics; that they should be given work of a practical nature, principally arithmetic; and that the teacher should give them as much individual attention and help as was consistent with her other duties. The Stanford Achievement Test was selected, not because it was necessarily the best for the purpose, but because its English section was being put to similar use at the time. Out of the eighty who took this test, twenty-five received scores below the seventh grade norm in arithmetic. These were put into what we called our "X" section. All others were assigned to regular elementary algebra classes.

This "X" section was assigned to one of the regular teachers who had had at least ten years of experience in teaching high school mathematics. Although she chose a text that contained much of practical mathematics, she found that to meet class needs she had to supple-

ment from other texts and from her own experience. She has been struggling to get those pupils to form good study habits and to develop such valuable traits as sustained attention, concentration, accuracy, and a general understanding of the fundamental concepts of arithmetic. She found them woefully lacking in skill in fundamentals, ability to use fractions and decimals, knowledge of the common tables of weights and measures, percentage, and problem solving. These deficiencies she is attempting to correct, and let me say here that it is a real struggle. It was agreed that any pupil in the "X" group who should demonstrate ability sufficient to warrant it could be permitted to try algebra as well. So far three such pupils have been found. Any pupil in regular algebra classes who did not do acceptable work was also to be put in the "X" group.

The following, briefly stated, seem to be the advantages and disadvantages of the plan to date:

ADVANTAGES:

1. It permits the school to give to pupils of the "X" group mathematics in keeping with their ability and previous attainment, namely, those fundamentals without which they cannot solve the everyday problems of life or succeed in more advanced courses.
2. It takes out of regular algebra classes pupils who would retard these classes and thus keep us from ministering efficiently to the needs and abilities of our better pupils.
3. It gives to the pupils of the "X" group greater satisfaction, peace of mind, and interest, because progress is at a rate in keeping with their ability.
4. It decreases the requests of pupils in algebra classes to be allowed to drop the subject. This is due to the facts that many who would otherwise make such request are already in the "X" group, and also that the principal has adopted the policy of placing any pupil who drops algebra, back in the "X" group. A pupil who can't or won't do the algebra knows we have a place in which to put him. Few pupils like to be demoted.
5. Intentionally the "X" group has been kept relatively small (25), while the regular classes are large (35). This permits the giving of more individual attention to pupils.
6. It permits the school to maintain reasonable standards.
7. It should stimulate a tendency to set reasonably good standards in those elementary schools whose graduates enter Chapel Hill High School.
8. It establishes a principle that is wholesome for the whole school, namely, that pupils will be put in classes in keeping with their ability and attainment.
9. It decreases failures, and with them their evil effects—discouragement, inferiority complexes, et cetera. It increases self-confidence, self-respect, and satisfaction.

10. For these pupils it lays the foundation for successful high school work.

DISADVANTAGES:

1. The poorer pupils lose the stimulus that comes from association in class with the brighter pupils.
2. Some one teacher is given the difficult task of helping these pupils work out their educational salvation. (In some ways this is an advantage.)
3. There *may* spring up in the school the notion that those in the "X" group are inferior and of no account. This has not occurred in Chapel Hill High School so far as the teachers are aware, showing that it can be avoided.
4. The plan permits a few superior pupils to be put into the same classes with large numbers of these "X" pupils in other subjects where there has been no segregation. This is detrimental to the superior students.

Taking both the advantages and disadvantages into consideration, most educational people would agree that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. This is particularly true since some of the disadvantages may be avoided with proper care and organization. Disadvantages numbered 3 and 4 above are of this type.

JUNIOR GARDEN CLUB

The Garden Club of North Carolina, the North Carolina Federation of Women's Clubs, the North Carolina Congress of Parent-Teacher Associations, and the State Department of Public Instruction, co-operating with a national movement headed by Better Homes and Gardens, Inc., are sponsoring a state-wide Junior Garden Club Program to interest young people in gardening and to make North Carolina a more beautiful state. As a citizenship project and as a beauty-promoting activity this endeavor should be encouraged. Awards are offered for a variety of types of work, among which are school, community, and home gardens, highway beautification along school bus routes, pools and aquariums, conservation of wild flowers and wild life, flower shows, and club organization. The details of the program, and score cards for yard and garden contests, may be obtained from the State Chairman, Mrs. S. A. Stoudemire, Chapel Hill, N. C.

The French Column

Conducted by HUGO GIDUZ

THE following questions have been sent to the Editor.

1. "Is it good to have pupils write phonetic symbols of French sentences each day? (I do for 4 1/2 months)."

In answer to this question I should say that as long as the writing of the symbols is of any value in improving the pronunciation of the pupils it may well be kept up. When the writing of symbols ceases to help towards this end there is no need for daily drill. However, when words are mispronounced it is well to have the pupils recall the pronunciation by having them write the symbols. One can hardly say that any definite time limit can be set on this work. It depends entirely on the various classes and the pupils in them.

2. "When should oral French begin?"

The answer to this question is simple. By all means begin the oral work on the first day, and keep it up every day during the course. It is only through the continual use of the oral that the pupils will ever learn to understand and speak French, and only through their using it themselves that they will acquire any facility in it. It is only through the daily repetition that they will be able to make the expressions thus drilled, part of their active vocabulary.

3. "How early should first year students begin reading?"

With the new state adopted text it seems to me that the question is answered by the book. According to the latest ideas of the Direct Reading Method we may begin reading on the first day. The latest texts by the advocates of this method provide material for this purpose.

The tenth annual meeting of the North Carolina Student Council Congress was held in High Point, November 6 and 7, 1936. Delegates were present from high schools in High Point, Charlotte, Greensboro, Asheville, Wilmington, Winston-Salem, Rocky Mount, Goldsboro, Kinston, Raleigh, Concord, Washington, Lexington, and Kannapolis.

The topic chosen for the 1937 Congress is "Financing the Extra-curricular Activities of Our Schools."

The Science Column

Conducted by CARLETON E. PRESTON

ADJUSTING THE BIOLOGY COURSE

FROM the point of view of high school education the object of a course in biology, like that of any science as given to high school pupils, is not primarily to teach facts. It is rather to help pupils develop in themselves the power to find out things for themselves—to observe keenly and accurately, to consider meanings, to distinguish causes and effects, to cultivate an open-minded attitude in dealing with problems of all kinds, and, having discovered certain facts or principles, to apply them intelligently to whatever situations call for their use.

To this general aim many others of high value are subservient. What these are will depend, in each special case, partly on temperament and ability of the student, partly on environment. The country boy or girl can be led to find in biology the whole groundwork of the agriculture that forms the basis of the life of his locality; the city pupil can be brought to understand better the sanitary protections with which he is surrounded. Both can gain a better conception of the workings of the human mechanism; in both may be developed a love of God's great out-of-doors. But to the dweller on the seashore this will come with a different appeal from that experienced by the child of the hills and inland lakes. Again, to some, biology in one or another of its phases may suggest primarily commercial possibilities; to others, its benefits, no less real, may be entirely of the aesthetic type. It is for the teacher to determine in every case what are the strongest of these various appeals in the particular environment where the course is given, and to shape the work accordingly, first to meet general conditions and later to fulfill the demands of individual pupils of different temperaments and backgrounds, so far as these can be learned.

To do all this is a slow process. It means training young people in habits of thought and meditation. It discourages mere memory accomplishments and the unquestioned acceptance of a higher authority, and demands that evidence to substantiate statements be consistently arranged and presented. It seeks to require of pupils not only logical

reasoning in their own work, but also an understanding, through a brief study of the steps by which others have gained the right to speak with authority, of the origin of our present body of scientific facts whereby people of today have been enabled to build with assurance upon foundations laid in the past. In a sense it applies the biological theory of "recapitulation" to the study of biology itself.

Viewed from this standpoint, the subject may be taught from almost any set of living material offered by the immediate environment. The major informational purpose is to create an intelligent understanding of the great and universal processes of *life*, and their meaning and influence in our surroundings. No attempt need be made to cover a wide range of type forms, or to deal with intricacies of phylogenetic development, good as these things may be in a college course. Specimens of the types not found in the vicinity will indeed be of value in broadening the concepts of animal and plant, and in awakening desire for further study, but no great amount of attention need be given them. Rather, the aim will be to give new meaning to the commonplace, to learn how living things live, how and why they change or have changed in the past, how we can train and bend and breed and use them better to add to man's health, sustenance, and general happiness.

The rate at which real progress can be made depends on several factors: the time allowed, the ability of the pupils, the teaching skill of the instructor, the strength and nature of the motives activating the work, the equipment of the laboratory and classroom. These, and not a predetermined syllabus, outline, or textbook, should be the governing factors. They are the real conditions of mental growth. To ignore these, and seek instead to cover ground through the cramming of facts, is like forcing a plant into premature bloom in a hothouse, only to have it perish for lack of real strength before it has ripened its seeds.

Unfortunately, in the average school with departmental arrangement, the time of both teachers and pupils is so filled with a round of rapidly changing duties that neither one has full opportunity to finish a task to his own satisfaction. Between this realization on the one hand and the knowledge of the tremendous amount of textbook material that may, and perhaps ought to, be, at least brought to the attention of the class on the other, the biologist, pupil or teacher, is in a difficult position, unless this fact that mental growth is a development and not a cramming is kept fully in mind.

This difficulty is further accentuated by present testing practices, which still tend to stress the accumulation of informational

data. But even here beginnings along new lines are being made, in the direction of testing *capacity to perform* biological investigation *and to apply* the knowledge gained. In a small way, through home-constructed tests, any classroom teacher can contribute to this movement, at least within his or her own school limits.

A chart, entitled "Petroleum Drilling and Production," showing how cable tool and rotary drilling equipment is used in drilling for and producing oil, has been prepared by the American Petroleum Institute. All essential parts are named. Cross sections of typical formations in which oil is found, and methods of production and equipment used both in flowing and pumping wells are shown.

The chart, 17 x 22 inches in size, is available to teachers upon request to the American Petroleum Institute's Department of Public Relations, 50 West 50th Street, New York.

"Petroleum Drilling and Production," which also presents pertinent production data of general interest, is a companion to "Petroleum Products," a refinery "flow chart," published two years ago.

The seventh annual convention of student government officers will be held at Detroit June 29 to July 3 in connection with the summer meeting of the National Education Association.

"Co-operative school life" has been selected as the general theme of this year's program. Four general sessions and many conferences and sectional meetings are scheduled for the four-day gathering which will attract students from all parts of the nation. One of the new features is the conference for officers of state and sectional organizations where mutual problems will be discussed, and co-operative activities planned.

The headquarters of the National Association of Student Officers is 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. This organization was started in 1930 by Dr. Willis A. Sutton, then president of the National Education Associaiton. It is sponsored by the association, and it is under the direct supervision of its Department of Secondary School Principals. The February number of Student Leader, the official publication of the organization, will contain the complete program of the 1937 convention. Sample copies will be sent on request.

The Home Economics Column

Conducted by VIVA M. PLAYFOOT

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF HOUSING AS AN INDIVIDUAL AND FAMILY RESOURCE

HOUSING plays an important part in the building of a home as it determines to a large extent, the kind of living which will take place. It may be considered as a resource in so far as it provides for definite individual and family needs such as opportunity for comfort, health, beauty, development, privacy, and rest and relaxation. There is much more involved in the problem that is vital than its merely decorative aspects. If the housing be adequate, there should be sufficient space for all activities desirable for satisfactory living. In presenting this phase of home economics, the teacher will wish to bring about with her students an appreciation of the relation of housing to their everyday living; an understanding of the contribution good housing can make toward satisfactory living, and an interest in good housing for themselves and their own community.

The unit of work might be introduced with questions such as: What do you consider a satisfactory home? How may the building in which we live determine our manner of living? From this discussion, the functions of a house and the relation between the structure and the physical, mental, and social needs could be developed. Houses should fit the people who occupy them. As they change and grow, so do their needs change and enlarge. This might lead into the problem: What are good standards for housing for any group? Some study of the way America is housed in both rural and urban districts could be made. In recent years there has been a steady migration from farms and rural towns to cities. Also an increasing number of families are choosing to live in suburbs rather than within city limits. What changes in housing will they probably find? How will their living be affected? Here it would be well to study what is being done to improve conditions at the present time at home and in other countries. The class might be divided into groups each of which would give a report on housing in different districts of the United States and in foreign countries. What is being done to improve housing conditions in the

country could be better understood by some of the students collecting information from the different divisions of the Federal government.

The problem of greatest interest to the class after standards of good housing have been developed would be: What are the housing conditions of the local community? How do these compare with conditions to be desired? What can be done to improve local housing? A model might be constructed or a map drawn to show suggested improvements. Whenever possible, home projects which will allow for improvements in our homes should be encouraged for interested students as a culmination. Throughout all this unit of study the teacher will want to emphasize the pleasure to be derived from adequate housing. Satisfactory living will always depend upon the character of the people living within the structure, but good housing will make a measurable contribution toward its accomplishment.

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MAGAZINES

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NEWS NOTES

The National Home Library Foundation, Dupont Circle, Washington, D. C., "organized in 1932 as a co-operative and non-profit undertaking to promote the reading of good literature," announces plans for distributing a million copies of books of special interest to educators, to be made available at twenty-five cents per volume (postage extra). Titles, all complete and non-abridged, have been approved by an advisory board of sixty-six persons distinguished in the arts and sciences. Distribution will be begun immediately. Lists of titles already available may be secured from the Foundation.

The American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, announces the appearance of two books intended to help teachers, counselors, librarians, and others in answering requests for guidance. One, *Books About Jobs,* by Willard E. Parker, lists "about 8,000 references to historical, biographical, inspirational, analytical, and technical material in some 600 job classifications (416 pp. Cloth $3.00). The other is a third edition of *Vocational Guidance Through the Library,* by Harry D. Kitson and Mary R. Lingenfelter. Included are lists of books on guidance; books on choosing a vocation and advancing in it; books and pamphlets describing occupations; periodicals; and national organizations interested in vocational guidance. (34 pp. 40c).

The *Dictionary of American Biography,* a work which has been eight years in the making, is just announced as completed, through the publication, on December 10, 1936, of its twentieth and final volume (Charles Scribner's Sons). This work was compiled under the auspices of the American Council of Learned Societies. It contains sketches of 13,633 American nationals, written by 2,243 contributors, and ranging in length from 500 to 10,000 words.

The Library of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill contained, on October 20, 1936, 328,597 volumes, according to a recent report.

Early American textbooks are becoming increasingly scarce each year, according to Martha R. McCabe, Assistant Librarian of the U. S. Office of Education, pointing to the value of the Office of Education's collection of textbooks used in American schools from early days to the present time. It is estimated that this "Museum of Textbooks" numbers upwards of 25,000 books.

Included in the Office of Education's collection are such well known schoolbooks of yesterday as Webster's old blue-backed speller, 1857; Mr. Wingate's arithmetic, 1694; The Instructor, 1785; New England Primer, 1843; Peter Parley's Geography, 1844; McGuffey readers, 1853; Benjamin Franklin Spelling Book, 1822; and Lindley Murray readers, 1814.

Twenty-six college presidents have notified John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, that they have established, or are now setting up, CCC camp enrollee scholarships. These scholarships, according to Howard W. Oxley, Director of CCC Camp Education, range in value from $50 to $1,000 per year and permit qualified CCC enrollees to undertake higher training. Twenty-eight colleges and universities are conducting extension classes and special lectures for enrollees, either free or at a low cost, and several institutions permit enrollees from nearby CCC camps to use their classrooms and laboratory equipment.

The U. S. Office of Education has issued six youth publications prepared by its Committee on Youth Problems. "The main purpose of these bulletins is to assist communities and youth agencies, with the aid of youths themselves, to develop the best possible programs to aid young men and women," says John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education. "Young people ask only for a chance. They are willing to work diligently to improve the conditions under which they shall spend their lives. It is hoped that in some small degree this series of bulletins will assist them and the communities and agencies with which they work to make the necesary adjustments speedily and wisely." The series includes: How Communities Can Help, 10 cents; Leisure for Living, 15 cents; Education for Those Out of School, 10 cents; Vocational Guidance for Those Out of School, 10 cents; Finding Jobs, 10 cents; and Community Surveys, 10 cents.

BOOK REVIEWS

Plain Talk. JOHN W. STUDEBAKER. National Home Library, 1936. ix + 166 pp. 25c.

One will have to search for several days before one will find more real sound pedagogical lore for a quarter than is found in this little volume. Of course it is to some extent special pleading, for in it Dr. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, pleads the cause of his hobby, the Public Forum. It is a good hobby and the Commissioner rides it none too hard. He gives expression here to his belief in the ultimate value and power of an intelligeat citizenship and advocates the Forum as an aid to the development of the desired ultimate. He believes that where there is greatest intelligence there also will the greatest freedom be. He keenly feels the need of a turn toward a newer, juster, social order and envisions the part of the teacher and the school in the work of its construction. To him intelligent teaching means creative teaching, means intensifying the effectiveness of effort toward the development of a newer social conscience.

The value of the Public Forum, as the Commissioner sees it, is in its purpose to bring into co-operation all lines of educational endeavor for the promotion of a broader understanding of citizenship. It may be an aid to the school, and it can go into fields which are sealed against the school. It seeks especially to aid those whose school opportunities have been meager, but who still wish to see, to know, and to understand. Plans for conducting Forums are given, drawn from the experiences of successful Forums in various places. Aids and materials for discussions are presented. It is, indeed, a valuable manual.

G. O. MUDGE.

An Experiment in Guidance—Lexington, North Carolina. National Youth Administration of North Carolina, 1936. 38 pp.

There is always a temptation, when an unusual type of service is mentioned in connection with one's own school, to think that it would require expensive equipment and especially trained workers. Superintendent A. W. Honeycutt and the Kiwanis Club of Lexington took seriously, however, the suggestions made by the North Carolina State Headquarters of the National Youth Administration and began in February, 1936, to help the young people of Lexington to study themselves and the possibilities of employment in their own community. Some of the record of their practical activities appears in this mimeographed report.

One of the most interesting parts of this report is the High School Commencement Program, including the discussions by seniors of different opportunities in vocational life for which various phases of their educaton had partially prepared them. If the Lexington experiment did nothing more than to familiarize young people with the job opportunities in their own community, it was highly worth while. But it helped the teachers, parents, and Kiwanis Club members to consider these practical matters, too. Other communities should undertake similar activities for the benefit of their young people.

A report of a somewhat different type of co-operative effort of the N. Y. A. in guidance, in this case with the North Carolina State Employment Service in its Durham office, is also obtainable from the N. Y. A. State Headquarters in Raleigh. Both types of work are highly desirable in all sections of North Carolina.

M. R. T.

Fingers that Talk. RALPH HAEFNER. The Gregg Publishing Company, 1936. 122 pp.

Here is "a typing book for children eight to eleven years of age," prepared on the basis of extensive experiments by a very competent psychologist. It is unfortunate that high school students of typing cannot have a practice book as attractive, well-organized, and appropriate to their interests and needs as this one is for primary-grade pupils. Attention is called to this book here chiefly because of the remarkable facilitating effects Dr. Haefner has found typing to have upon other phases of the child's school work, chiefly his English and spelling. High school teachers, if similar studies were made, would probably find the work of their students improving correspondingly as a consequence of learning to use the typewriter.

M. R. T.

Nature Magazine's Guide to Science Teaching. E. LAURENCE PALMER. American Nature Association, 1936. 128 pp.

The content of this guide for use of Nature Magazine in the study of science in Grades 1-10 has been "prepared on a philosophy that science is not only a series of organized facts but more important than this it is concerned with the method by which facts are established. Accordingly the program comsists not of a survey of areas of content but rather an exploration of different realms of experience." . . . "While the initial experiences should be largely of a sensory exploration of the immediate environment these experiences may be enriched" through reading and picture study of the sort abundantly furnished in such sources as Nature Magazine.

The "experiential realms" under which the material is grouped are tabulated as Space Relationships, Food Problems, Energy Relationships (subdivided into two sections), Time Relationships, Instinct and Intelligence, Protection, Physical and Biological Environment, Race Origin and Ancestry, Balance. The development within each realm is planned for in the provision of definite work suited to each grade. In the sections of the guidebook following the tabulation some practical working suggestions are given grade by grade, together with references to appropriate articles in the more recent volumes of the magazine.

To the reviewer, who, in his work with children of the intermediate grades, is greatly impressed with their lack of experiential background for the more organized sciences of the senior high school years, this program seems sound and attractive, and the "realms" well chosen. Like any such program it may be misinterpreted to mean the substitution of "armchair science"—reading books exclusively—for the first hand examination of the natural objects. But against this the author himself has given warning in that he speaks of the reading as done for "enrichment." This warning should by all means be heeded.

C. E. P.

The Return to Religion. HENRY C. LINK. The Macmillan Co., 1936. 1-181 pp. $1.75.

In one of the rather acrid debates between two well known psychologists concerning the efficacy of purposive psychology the behaviorist in a most sarcastic manner said: "The purposivist returns to religion." This was taken to mean that the purposivist had no scientific grounds on which to stand and had taken refuge in the mysteries of religion. No such attitude characterizes Dr. Link in this book. He almost boasts of how he and his wife, Phi Beta Kappans both, after considerable wanderings in the morasses of doubt and disbelief, have returned to religion. Dr. Link not only embraces religion for himself and family, but takes the position that for a man who is vocationally down and out, having difficulties with his family, or even is sexually maladjusted, the road to religion is always the right one.

It appears from the perusal of this text that opportunities for choice in ways of living or thinking are all wrong. Liberalism has gone the way of all flesh. This is to be taboo. Instead there must come indoctrination and discipline, so that an individual will not mind work nor be confused by the divergent philosophic doctrines sweeping around him. Moreover, many persons are too well educated; they have become flabby and loose jointed. They need to go to work, get a job, do anything but continue their education along cultural lines. Far too many of them, even, are going to high school or college.

No one doubts that some of the procedures recommended might be of value. But to those of us who have worked and hoped for a more scientific analysis of human personality, who had believed that much of value resides in carefully worked out personality patterns, who had examined the carefully measured traits required in certain vocations, this book, and what it stands for, comes as a distinct throwback to a time when mental analyses were brief, and recommendations to the maladjusted were as simple as "take dancing lessons," "join the Y. M. C. A.," or "attend Sunday School."

A. M. JORDAN.

Modern-School Mathematics. Book Three. SCHORLING, CLARK, AND SMITH. World Book Co., 1936. Pp. 462 + xviii. $1.24.

This is the third volume of a three book set of mathematics books designed, one for each year respectively of the junior high school. This book is therefore planned for the ninth grade. The material is unified although about one half of the material used is taken from the subject matter field of algebra. Pupils who study the whole set of which this is Book Three have had, when they have completed them, the equivalent of one year of algebra. The last chapter is devoted to demonstrative geometry. The book also contains a considerable amount of arithmetic, some statistics, and a little numerical trigonometry.

The book contains a number of well chosen pictures and numerous cuts and diagrams which make it attractive and at the same time are a great asset in developing clear concepts and genuine understanding on the part of the pupil. The problems are practical and well chosen from the various activities of life. This should aid the teacher in developing an interest in and liking for mathematics. The explanations and illustrative examples are understandable by

pupils of the ninth grade, and systematically arranged. The book places special emphasis on analysis. It should therefore be a great aid in developing power and good habits in problem solving. The number of practice exercises seems to be sufficient to insure mastery.

The book is attractive in design, the print is good, and the page placement of material is good. It is well bound and will be durable.

Other features of the book are the introduction which is entitled, "Why Do We Study Mathematics," and the historical excerpts that are found throughout the book. These together with the features mentioned above should serve to motivate the study of the subject, and should aid in arousing an interest that should make the study of mathematics a pleasure and not drudgery.

H. F. MUNCH.

Around the World Almanac in Eighty Questions. CARTER ALEXANDER. Published by the author, 525 W. 120th St., New York, 1937. 24 pp. 10c. Discount on quantity orders.

The purpose of this little pamphlet is to give practice in finding information through intelligent use of an index. The author, library professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, seeks to distribute in inexpensive form something which will both help cultivate a valuable library skill and furnish a possible source of entertainment and enlightenment. He has selected the World Almanac (1937) "because careful study showed that it was the most widely available reference book with the needed qualities and at a price low enough for the poorest schools and libraries, and some individuals, to own." The publishers of the Almanac have no connection with the preparation of the pamphlet.

The questions cover a wide range of interests.

C. E. P.

The Amateur Actor. FRANCES MACKENZIE. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, Ltd. vi + 186 pp. $1.00.

A professional actress was recently glancing at the program of a drama school for amateurs when her eye was caught by an item: "Class in Acting." She exclaimed: "How on earth can you teach people to act? Either you can act, or you can't."

True, the gift and instinct for acting must be born, but the actor must be made by the sweat of his brow, and there is perhaps some consolation in the thought that although a *great* actor must be born, a competent actor can be made. And certainly many more competent actors would be made if this little handbook were carefully read by amateurs. Every high school dramatic club should own a copy; even experienced producers will find it a valuable aid in directing novices. A large part of the material in the book has been suggested by problems and difficulties that have arisen during rehearsals or classes.

The volume is divided into two sections. The first is a general discussion of the amateur's problems—the actor's approach to his art and the need for technique; the actor's approach to his part; the actor's range of parts; self-taught technique in speech and movement. There is an excellent chapter on stage-management and a brief chapter, "A Plea to Audiences," which will be greatly appreciated by anyone who has ever participated in amateur theatricals.

The second section is made up of exercises which were written for use at British Drama League schools and courses in Drama. They are intended to illustrate many of the points dealt with in the book and to help the actor to acquire self-confidence; to develop his stage-sense; and to meet his need for practice in technique. The exercises are well-chosen, and their usefulness is enhanced by notes and suggestions for the teacher.

There has long been a dearth of good, practical material on acting for non-professionals. *The Amateur Actor* should be welcomed by little theatre groups, high school dramatic clubs, and by teachers who suddenly find themselves directing plays.

M. W.

Integrated Mathematics with Special Application to Algebra. J. A. SWENSON. Edwards Bros., Ann Arbor, Mich. 446 pp. $1.47.

This is the first of a series of high school mathematics texts of which three have already been published. The book, although the emphasis is upon algebra, attempts also to emphasize the unity of mathematics by using certain parts of geometry, statistics, and trigonometry. It even furnishes a good approach to the calculus by introducing the pupil to the ΔX, ΔY, concepts and the slope of a line as represented by $\Delta X \div \Delta Y$. Throughout the book the author has used graphic methods to make clear algebraic processes and principles. It opens up many concepts which are new to the pupil up to this time. Because there are so many of these new concepts introduced some may think the book too advanced for the ninth grade. However, much of the work corresponds to that offered in the ordinary algebra text, although it is presented in a unique way. Most of the geometry presented is of the intuitive type although there is a considerable amount of demonstrative geometry.

There are a number of features in the book worthy of note. Among them are the following: The introduction is entitled, "The Origin of Algebra." Here are found some of the interesting facts on this topic which should serve to stimulate interest in the subject and in supplementary reading by the pupil. The author presents a wealth of verbal problems which are well chosen from a wide variety of life activities. The chapter on approximate numbers is unique and emphasizes procedures in which most pupils are deficient. There is an abundance of material sufficiently advanced for the gifted pupils.

Any teacher who is looking for a unified mathematics text covering the general field of elementary algebra should surely examine this book.

H. F. M.

Integrated Mathematics with Special Application to Analysis. J. A. SWENSON. Edwards Bros., Ann Arbor, Mich. 473 pp. $2.00.

This is book five of a series of integrated high school mathematics texts. It is written to be used in the senior year. It is designed to give to the student an introduction to conic sections, integral calculus, differential calculus, probability and statistics, algebra beyond that usually taught in high school and life insurance. This shows that the author has attempted to present to the pupil in this book the material suggested by the National Committee on Mathematics as requirements for grade twelve.

It would appear evident to one who even casually examines the book that the students who use it should be only those who have special interests in mathematics or some very good reasons for pursuing its study beyond the point ordinarily attained by most high school students. It would seem that the student should have two years algebra and plane and solid geometry before attempting to master the material in this book. In fact it might very well be used as a text in college freshman mathematics.

The book is well written, the explanations are unusually good, the problem material and typography are good. The approach is made to the material presented through the function concept which runs through most of the book. This may be considered the matrix which binds together the algebra, calculus, and statistics which the book presents. The author has done a commendable piece of work in unifying several branches of the mathematics family. The book therefore merits its title, Integrated Mathematics.

Teachers who want a book for the use of advanced pupils should examine this book carefully before choosing a text, for it is unique in its field.

H. F. M.

CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

(Continued from Page 95)

of observation required is 32.5 clock hours, and of practice teaching 42.6 clock hours. This practice teaching is offered in regular public schools by more than one-half of the institutions. The remainder use secondary schools that are affiliated with the institutions. Students are charged a special fee for this course by about one-sixth of the 91 institutions in this study. Students are permitted by 5 institutions to spend a period, varying from 6 to 20 weeks, out of college residence in some public school system for practice teaching.

h. About one-third of the institutions operate affiliated secondary schools that are entirely independent of the public school system, and in most of these cases they charge pupils a tuition fee. Approximately one-seventh of the institutions operate affiliated schools jointly with the public school system. The remainder use regular public schools for practice teaching. Few privately supported institutions operate affiliated schools. In about three-fifths of the affiliated schools the head of the school is also the Director of Practice Teaching. Only 2 affiliated schools are primarily for experimentation; about two-fifths of them are largely for practice teaching; and three-fifths claim to combine the two purposes. The organizations of these schools according to grades reflect the diverse systems of the country as a whole.

i. The jointly operated schools are usually organized and administered in accordance with a definite agreement between the teacher training institution and the public school authorities. The degree of control exercised by the institution and the proportion of the finan-

cial support contributed by it are both largely governed by local conditions and vary accordingly.

j. Some institutions which have no affiliated secondary schools, but use regular public schools for practice teaching seem pleased with this plan. Those which have joint agreements were not as enthusiastic; however, there is no evidence of the widespread dissatisfaction with this plan that one might expect.

k. The departmental status of instructors who teach Materials and Methods courses in special subjects or fields varies considerably among the 88 institutions reporting on this topic. In about thirty-seven per cent they have dual instructors who are members of both the Department of Education and a subject matter department. In thirty-four per cent they are members of the Department of Education only, and in twenty per cent they are members of a subject matter department only. In the remainder they have some other arrangement. In 22 institutions these instructors do some teaching in the affiliated school. Over one-half of these require them to teach 3 or more periods daily in the school in addition to teaching methods classes and supervising practice teachers.

NOTES FROM THE FIELD

A. B. Combs
Division of Instructional Service, State Department of Public Instruction

THE completion of the building program in Stanly County is worthy of mention. This program has provided an adequate, sanitary building for every child of school age, white and colored. All high schools for white children are accredited and seven of the eleven elementary schools are standard. During the nine years Superintendent James P. Sifford has been in office this county has spent $450,000 for buildings and the county owes only about $50,000 more than when this program started.

The success of a program of extra-curricular activities depends very much upon proper planning. A number of high schools have set aside a special period for clubs and other similar activities. In some instances much of the value is added to the curriculum, in others the program is ineffective. Mr. George H. Hill, principal of the Oakboro High School, has developed an effective program of extra-curricular activities. Each of the eight high school teachers sponsors some activity but no teacher is asked to sponsor an activity

in which he does not have a keen interest as well as training to fit him peculiarly for leadership. The clubs and activities sponsored in this school during the first semester were: Dramatic Club, Junior and Senior 4-H Clubs, Track Club for boys and girls, Basketball for boys and girls, Bible Club, Annual Club, Bird Club and Music Club.

NUMBER OF PUPILS PURSUING THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, 1935-36

SUBJECT	ENROLLMENT
**English*	
First Year	59,799
Second Year	45,183
Third Year	34,993
Fourth Year	27,267
Twelfth Grade	704
Public Speaking	141
Journalism	68
Dramatics	147
Spelling	258
Mathematics	
Arithmetic	33,450
General Mathematics	5,500
Algebra, Beginning	50,615
Algebra, Second Year	35,987
Algebra, Advanced	2,656
Plane Geometry	19,405
Solid Geometry	455
Trigonometry	295
Social Studies	
Geography	15,250
Citizenship or Civics	47,149
World History	25,518
United States History	29,209
Ancient History	3,031
Sociology	15,767
Economics	16,051
North Carolina History	150
Problems in Democracy	1,490
Advanced Civics and Govt.	147
Character Education	16
Guidance	18
Modern History	1,948
Negro History	300
Foreign Language	
Latin I	8,818
Latin II	6,825
Latin III	259
Latin IV	259
French I	22,673
French II	16 091
Spanish I	426
Spanish II	229
German I	70
German II	48
Art	973
Art Appreciation	101

SUBJECT	ENROLLMENT
Science	
General Science	37,537
Biology	36,357
Chemistry	6,102
Physics	9,651
Health	628
Other Sciences	55
Business Education	
Bookkeeping I	2,682
Bookkeeping II	551
Stenography I	2,803
Stenography II	871
Typewriting I	5,838
Typewriting II	1,961
Junior Business Training	2,616
Business Arithmetic	4,462
Business English	172
Office and Secretarial Practice	145
Business Law	470
Salesmanship	335
Penmanship	79
Agriculture I	6,015
Agriculture II	4,250
Agriculture III and IV	3,124
Home Economics I	17,732
Home Economics II	12,752
Home Economics III and IV	700
Textile Fabrics	6
Interior Decorating	45
Industrial Arts	2,727
Automobile Shop	21
Machine Shop	85
Electricity	21
Machine Drawing	23
Printing	30
Metal Work	82
Carpentry	43
Brick Laying	25
Bible	927
Library Instruction	879
Psychology	16
Physical Education	3,548
Music	3,578
Glee Club, Chorus, and Choir	387
Band and Orchestra	421

* Since nearly all of the pupils study English the total enrollment is used for each grade in this subject. The figures for the other subjects are those reported on the High School Principal's Annual Reports.